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AUTHOR Mandrell, Christy D.; Shank, Kathlene S.
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ABSTRACT

A 25-item survey focusing on teacher effectiveness was completed by a volunteer sample of 86 special education teachers. Respondents ranked survey items which had been developed from a review of the research literature identifying characteristics of teacher effectiveness. Five survey items were presented in each of the following categories: (1) teacher characteristics (e.g., demonstrates enthusiasm, demonstrates flexibility); (2) organizational practices (e.g., competent in subject taught, instruction clear and focused); (3) instructional practices (e.g., uses a variety of methods and materials, provides practice and reinforcement activities); (4) evaluative practices (e.g., provides immediate feedback, individualizes instruction); and (5) behavior management practices (e.g., establishes explicit standards for students' behavior, models desired behavior). Responses of three subgroups of teachers were compared: K-6 teachers of learning disabled, behavior disordered, and educable mentally handicapped students; 7-12 teachers of learning disabled, behavior disordered, and educable mentally handicapped students; and K-12 teachers of other disabled students exclusive of those named above. Significant differences were found at the .05 level for 2 of the 25 items. The study concluded that the three subgroups were more alike than different in their perceptions of the importance of a given set of characteristics relative to teacher effectiveness. Appendices include references in support of the selection of each survey item. (JW)

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TEACHER EFFECTIVENESS
IN
SPECIAL EDUCATION
Christy D. Mandrell and Kathlene S. Shank
Eastern Illinois University

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Running Head: Teacher Effectiveness in Special Education

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Abstract

In the last decade, researchers have identified characteristics, organizational, instructional, evaluative and behavior management practices specific to teacher effectiveness. Although much research has been conducted on teacher effectiveness, a limited number of studies have been conducted in special education settings. A literature review summary accompanies this paper which specifies nature of the populations (SPA, ELE, and/or SED) studied specific to effectiveness. The purpose of this study was to compare the views of the "experts" to those of special education teachers in regard to teacher effectiveness and levels of importance of various characteristics. A 25-item survey was developed and used which asked special education teachers to rank items within groups relative to importance. Areas examined were: teacher characteristics, organizational, instructional, evaluative, and behavioral practices.

The responses of three subgroups (K-6 and 7-12, [LD, BD, EMR] and K-12, other) were compared. Significant differences were found at the .05 level for 2 out of 25 items. The forced response rankings of this volunteer sample of 86 special educators were not completely harmonious with what the literature emphasizes as most important. The study concluded that the three subgroups of special education teachers were more alike than different in their perceptions of the importance of a given set of characteristics relative to teacher effectiveness.

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Teacher Effectiveness

The Nation At Risk report of the National Commission on Excellence, published in 1983, stimulated interest in the body of literature related to teacher effectiveness. The question of just what it is effective teachers do was raised repeatedly as the search for excellence became a national phenomenon.

Doyle (1978) characterized teacher effectiveness as the attributes of a teacher's personality, attitudes or behavior that is associated with acceptable indicators of efficacy (p. 141). Fenstermacher (1982) focused on the structuring of student experiences as a means of defining the effective teacher. Through the structuring of student experiences, the teacher provided students with the opportunity continually to enlarge the students' knowledge and understanding of academic related concepts (p. 7).

In contrast, Pederson (1975) and Ornstein (1976) advocated that teacher effectiveness is too complex to measure due to the lack of consistency on the part of the researchers to define what constitutes an effective teacher, and what measures will be used to determine teacher efficacy. Doyle (1985), Guthrie (1982), and Walsh (1984) took similar positions on the teacher effectiveness issue. They advocated that many teachers were using effective teaching techniques relying more on faith, common sense, and hard work, rather than the sketchy guidelines offered by research; thus, a definition for teacher effectiveness, in their opinions, serves little utility. Like the above researchers, Spellman (1978) stated, "At the present,

teaching competencies have been far more identified for regular educators than special educators," (p. 49). However, she believed that the concept of effective teaching was a common concern in both regular and special education settings.

In the body of effectiveness literature, specific teacher characteristics, organizational practices, instructional practices, evaluative practices and behavior management strategies have been identified which characterize the effective teacher.

Teacher Characteristics

Emmer, Evertson, and Anderson (1980); Johnson (1980); Olivia and Henson (1980); and Rosenshine (1983) single out enthusiasm as a key to effectiveness. Using behavioral observations of changes in student achievement, these studies concur that the internal interest generated on the part of the teacher provides students with an increased motivation to learn. Laminack and Long (1985) advocated that enthusiasm was apparent in the teacher's attitude and in the instructional practices used by the teacher in the classroom. These studies each involved regular classroom settings.

Balch (1981), Baumann (1984), Emmer, Evertson, and Anderson (1980), Hansen (1981), Heitzmann and Starpoli (1975), Johnson (1980), Laminack and Long (1985), Olivia and Henson (1980), and Rosenshine (1983) examined the relationship of sensitivity to effectiveness and found

sensitivity to be a characteristic of effective teachers working in elementary populations. Balch (1981) examined secondary students' views of the effective teacher. In the Balch study, students were asked to identify the characteristics they wanted in a teacher. Many of the students expressed a desire for a teacher to recognize them as a person. Preservice teachers in teacher education programs were the target population of Laminack and Long (1985). They asked preservice teachers in teacher education programs to complete a survey identifying those characteristics and instructional practices of the effective teacher. They found enthusiasm to be a key to an effective teacher.

Larrivee (1982) examined seven general categories related to instruction: classroom management, questioning style, academic learning time, individualization, teaching style, classroom climate, and attitudinal variables using a population of elementary teachers. Four methods of data collection were implemented: direct classroom observations, teacher daily records, teacher self reports, and teacher and student interviews. Data was collected on 33 elementary teachers over a five month period. Descriptive findings revealed that teachers perceived sensitivity to be an important characteristic of effective teachers.

The terms "flexibility" and "open-mindedness" have been used interchangeably on the part of researchers who have conducted studies in the area of teacher effectiveness.

Villeme and Hall (1984-1985) found that teachers in elementary classes who were flexible experienced improved interactions with students. Heitzmann and Starpoli (1975), and Olivia and Henson (1980) observed an improvement in students' attitudes. Cooney (1981) viewed the perceptions of teachers in regular elementary classrooms as a means of identifying the effective teacher. Teachers were asked to self-rate themselves as to their effectiveness within the classroom, and identify what behaviors or characteristics contributed to their effectiveness. The findings supported flexibility as an important characteristic.

Flexibility has also been found to be an effective characteristic of teachers who work with students identified as exceptional. Sass-Lehrer and Walk (1984) examined the underlying dimensions and correlates of the perceived importance of teacher competencies for special educators. They observed 50 special educators in regard to six behavioral domains: student assessment, organization and management of instruction, instructional competency, family, personal characteristics and professional competency. Flexibility was one of six characteristics found to be significant.

Research in both regular and special education settings has shown that teachers who have provided students with encouragement and a supportive environment observed an increase in student motivation and achievement. Balch (1981), Brophy (1979), Larrivee (1982), Ornstein and Levine

(1981), Snyder (1978), Stow (1979), Suydan (1983), and Taylor (1981) each examined the relationship between encouragement and student behaviors using populations of elementary and secondary teachers. Ayers (1983) observed 42 elementary resource teachers and 57 regular elementary teachers to determine whether there were differences in their verbal behavior patterns. Observation data was collected over four to five 20-minute periods in a 3 to 4-hour period using the Flanders System (p. 176). Means and standard deviations were computed for both groups for six teaching ratios: indirect to direct teaching; revised indirect to direct teaching; and direct teacher influence to student talk. The data was statistically analyzed using a T-test with a .05 level of significance. Results of the study indicated that there were no significant differences between the verbal behavior of resource and regular elementary teachers; but as a whole, resource teachers spent a larger amount of time encouraging student performance.

Brophy (1979) looked at the effects of elementary teachers' expectations on student achievement and behavior. He concluded that teachers who hold high expectations for student performance affect students' level of achievement. After researching the effect of teacher expectations on student achievement in 1979, Brophy conducted a follow-up study in 1982. This study also looked at the effect of elementary and secondary teachers' expectations on student behavior. Once again, support was given to the notion that

teachers who held high expectations for student behavior observed a decrease in discipline problems.

Research has also been conducted on the importance of teacher expectations on students identified as handicapped. According to Glazzard (1984), "Teacher expectations influence the performance of students identified as handicapped" (p. 136). The Larrivee (1982) study examined attitudinal variables; high expectations for student performance was identified as an important characteristic of effective teachers. Aloia and Aloia (1982) surveyed 60 elementary teachers and 60 special education teachers to specifically assess teacher expectations as they relate to students identified as handicapped. The survey specifically assessed four dependent measures: student's classroom behavior; academic potential; teacher ability to work with the student; and the teacher's general impression of the student (p. 15). Survey data was statistically analyzed using analysis of variance (ANOVA). Significant differences were found between the regular and special education teachers on the measures of academic potential and ability to work with the student. Overall, the regular elementary teachers held significantly lower expectations in regard to academic performance for students identified as handicapped. On the other hand, the special education teachers held higher expectations for student performance and observed increases in the levels of student achievement.

Organizational Practices

The literature identifies five organizational practices predominantly found to be specific to effective teaching. These practices are: competency in subject area(s), development and communication of lesson objectives, systematic presentation of information, clear and focused instruction, and paced instruction. These organizational practices are supported in the literature as ways to increase student achievement.

Johnson (1980), Clivia and Henson (1980), and Pellicer (1984) conducted research in the area of "competence in subject areas" specific to elementary and secondary populations. Their research supports that effective teachers who are competent in the subject area(s) stimulate student achievement.

Similarly, Englert (1983) conducted a study that attempted to determine specific instructional practices associated with student achievement during direct instruction in special education settings. Seventeen special education teacher trainees were observed by three trained observers who used the Direct Instruction Observation System (DIOS), which is a system designed to code teacher's direct instruction behaviors (p. 248). The 17 teacher trainees were assigned to, and visited in, their practicum sites for two hours twice each week for twelve weeks. During each visit, teacher trainees were required to teach a lesson and maintain accurate records of student

performance. Academic gains were determined by a "learning score" which consisted of dividing the students' pretest and post test scores. Effectiveness scores, as determined by students' academic gains, were rank ordered. An analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to ascertain statistical levels of effectiveness. Findings showed that more effective teachers maintained higher content coverage, presented material at a faster pace, provided frequent practice activities, and actively involved students in learning.

Almost all of the textbooks and prepackaged educational materials used by teachers today contain predeveloped objectives and goals for each lesson. In a subtle way, publishing companies have been stressing the importance of instructional goals and objectives for daily lessons. Like the publishing companies, researchers using regular classroom populations have supported the development and communication of lesson objectives to students (Abrams, 1981; Balch, 1981; Baumann, 1984; Brophy, 1979; Emmer, Evertson, and Anderson, 1980; Guthrie, 1982; Guzzetti and Marzano, 1984; Koslofsky, 1984).

Englert (1983) and Sass-Lehrer and Wolk (1984) conducted similar studies in special education settings. Each of their results support the development and communication of lesson objectives as an effective organizational practice. Englert (1984) focused on the existing body of teacher effectiveness literature as it pertains to regular and special education settings. She

examined this research within the three domains of classroom management, instructional organization and teaching presentation (p. 2). Within the domain of classroom management, Englert cited teacher expectations for student behavior, establishing standards for behavior, modeling, and monitoring of student behavior to be important for effective teachers (p. 3). In regard to instructional organization, she identified the practices of allocating time for instructional activities, maximizing use of practice activities, small group instruction and tutoring systems. The final domain Englert addressed was lesson presentation which was identified in three phases. The first phase involves the process of linking new information to what students already know; the second stage involves active participation on the part of students specific to practice activities; while the third phase involves independent practice activities. Each of the three domains and the characteristics/practices within them are evaluated on a Likert self-rating scale or observation systems. Each has advantages and disadvantages, but Englert has identified the above as the most efficient means to evaluate teacher effectiveness.

Guthrie (1982) and (1983), Hansen (1981), and Johnson (1980), using elementary and secondary populations agreed that the effective teacher not only presents the information in a scope and sequence format, but has a rationale for the sequence of skills for which he or she teaches. Both the

Larrivee and Englert studies support the use of systematic presentation with populations identified as handicapped. Larrivee (1982), in the study in which she identified effective teaching behaviors for mainstreaming, identified the systematic presentation of information as one of the more effective organizational practices. Englert (1983) measured teacher effectiveness among special educators and identified those practices that resulted in increased student achievement. Her findings, as Larrivee's, supported the systematic presentation of information as a practice of an effective teacher.

Emmer, Evertson, and Anderson (1980), Guthrie (1982), Hansen (1981), Johnson (1980), and Squire, Huitt, and Segars (1981) found "clear and focused instruction" to be an effective means of increasing student achievement. Again, the populations were regular classroom teachers. Mosley and Smith (1982) conducted a study surveying 7-12 grade students' perceptions regarding effective teaching.

One of the most prevalent responses they found was clarity of instruction. The pacing of instruction has also been found to be a characteristic of an effective teacher. Specifically, researchers examined the effect that paced instruction had on student achievement (Blair, 1984; Brophy, 1979; Taylor, 1981). Rosenshine (1980) found that elementary teachers who presented information at a brisk pace tended to be more effective in increasing student achievement. Likewise, Englert (1983), in her study,

observed 17 special education trainees using a DIOS observation system which codes direct instruction behaviors. One of the behaviors she identifies as effective was paced instruction as it related to the achievement levels of students identified as exceptional. Subsequently, she, in 1984, examined the teacher effectiveness literature to ascertain specific effective practices as they related to special education. Of the practices she identified, paced instruction was one of the most prevalent.

Instructional Practices

Emmer, Evertson, and Anderson (1980), Rouk (1980), and Snyder (1978) looked at the effects various methods and materials have on elementary and secondary students' achievement. The findings from these studies revealed that teachers who have incorporated a wide variety of methods and materials into their instruction were effective teachers. Guthrie (1983) conducted a study that examined effective practices of elementary teachers. This research supported that those teachers who incorporated a wide variety of methods and materials not only observed an increase in student achievement, but a decrease in inappropriate student behavior.

Westling, Koorland, and Rose (1980) surveyed 50 elementary special education teachers regarding characteristics of superior and average special educators. The 100-question survey was designed to reflect the status and behaviors of teachers in seven areas:

personal/professional data; professional preparation; classroom teaching activities; classroom management; evaluation; professional interaction; and parent interaction (p. 359). Teachers were asked to respond to "yes-no" and multiple choice questions. The data was statistically analyzed using a chi square test. Findings revealed that superior special education teachers used a variety of materials, individualized instruction, grouped students when appropriate, used reinforcement and consequences to increase and decrease student behavior and communicate with teachers/administrators.

Ayers (1983) observed 42 elementary resource teachers and 57 regular elementary teachers to determine whether there were differences in their verbal behavior patterns. Observation data were conducted over four to five 20-minute periods in a three to four-hour period using the Flanders System (p. 176). Comparisons were made of the two groups using the T-test. Although there were no significant differences in their verbal patterns, the findings suggested that the difference arises in the materials used. Ornstein (1986) argued that teacher effectiveness should not only be defined by the effects the teacher has on the student, but also by the effects the student has on the teacher. He stated, "Teachers may not be shaping student outcomes, but instead students may be shaping teacher behavior." (p. 100). Student behavior and its influence(s) on teacher behavior must be considered when defining teacher effectiveness. Good

(1979), Issler (1983), Lehr (1982), and Pellicer (1984), using regular classroom populations, supported the notion and concluded that students must not only be actively considered when defining teacher effectiveness, but must also be actively involved in the learning process.

Researchers, such as Larrivee (1982) and Englert (1983), attempted to generalize these effects across populations of students identified as exceptional. The Englert study in 1983 examined the specific instructional practices associated with student achievement and the effective teacher. Results of the Englert study supported that one of the most effective means by which to increase student achievement is through providing students with opportunities to be actively involved in the learning process.

The quality and quantity of time given to students has been an important consideration in examining what effective teachers do. Ornstein and Levine (1981), studying elementary and secondary populations, advocated that it is difficult to measure quality instruction given the variance in students and their educational needs. Their position, as well as the position of many other researchers, has been that the effective elementary and secondary teacher devotes much of the instructional time to task-related activities with the result being an increase in student achievement (Abrams, 1981; Baumann, 1984; Blair, 1984; Brandt, 1982; Emmer, Evertson, and Anderson, 1980; Guzzetti and Marzano, 1984;

Rouk, 1980; Stow, 1979; Taylor, 1981). Furthermore, Medley (1977) examined 289 studies on teacher effectiveness and found that teachers who had spent most of their time on task-related activities produced student achievement gains. Squire, Huitt, and Segars (1981) concurred with Medley's conclusion and stated, "Students who have opportunities to succeed and increase both their academic involvement and instructional time observe increases in their achievement." (p. 177).

The Larrivee and Englert studies looked at the importance of active student involvement in the special education setting. Larrivee (1982), in the study in which she identified effective teaching behaviors for mainstreaming, identified active student involvement as one of the more effective instructional practices of a teacher.

According to Doyle (1985), effective teachers not only provide opportunities for students to be actively involved in learning, but also provide the students with opportunities to maintain that learning. Maintenance is accomplished through the provision of practice as well as reinforcement activities. This notion has been supported by other researchers who have studied and attempted to define teacher effectiveness (Abrams, 1981; Brophy, 1979; Lehr, 1982; Pellicer, 1984).

A primary goal of teaching is to communicate information. Although much of this communication is directed toward students, it must also be directed toward

other teachers and administrators who are viable sources of knowledge that should be utilized whenever possible. Johnson (1980) stated, "Communication is the key to effective teaching," (p. 263). Likewise, other researchers, using both elementary, secondary and special education populations, have concurred with Johnson, and found that teachers who frequently interact with other staff members facilitate and contribute to the overall improvement of instruction (Cooney, 1981; Hansen, 1981; Olivia and Henson, 1980; Sass-Lehrer and Wolk, 1984; Squire, Huitt, and Segars, 1981).

Westling, Koorland, and Rose (1981) surveyed 50 randomly selected elementary special education teachers as a means to identify characteristics and practices of superior and average special education teachers. Teachers were asked to respond "yes" or "no" to the 100 identified statements. Findings from the study showed that 60 percent of the teachers perceived communication with other teachers and administrators to be a practice of an effective special education teacher (p. 361). Overall, researchers have supported that the use of a wide variety of methods and materials, active student involvement, task-related activities, the provision of practice and reinforcement activities and communication are characteristics of the effective teacher; when used in whole or in part, research shows a relationship to levels of student achievement.

Evaluative Practices

The literature has consistently identified five evaluative practices of the effective teacher: closely monitors students' progress, provides immediate feedback, individualizes instruction, groups students according to abilities, and fairly evaluates students' performance. Each of the identified practices has been found to have an effect on student achievement. Rippey (1983) suggested that the best measure of effective teaching has not been what the teacher has done, but what the student has accomplished. Therefore, it can be implied that the monitoring of students' progress provides teachers with a means of measuring the effectiveness of their instructional practices. As a result, researchers have been concerned with the effect of this characteristic on student achievement. Abrams (1981), Baumann, (1984), Guthrie (1982), Pellicer (1984), Squire, Huitt, and Segars (1981), using regular elementary settings, found that monitoring students' progress resulted in an increase in student achievement.

Immediate feedback tends to increase student achievement (Baumann, 1984; Brophy, 1979; Guthrie, 1982; Issler, 1983; Pellicer, 1984; Rosenshine, 1983). Pellicer (1984) not only found that immediate feedback increased student achievement, but also believed that it had the most effect on student achievement.

The Larrivee and Englert studies looked at the importance of immediate feedback in the special education

setting. Larrivee (1982), in the study in which she identified effective teaching behaviors for mainstreaming, identified the provision of immediate feedback as one of the more effective evaluative practices of a teacher. Englert (1983) measured teacher effectiveness among special educators and identified those practices that resulted in increased student achievement. Her findings supported that teachers who provide immediate feedback to students regarding their performance tend to observe increases in student achievement.

In recent years, there has been support given to the concept of "individualized instruction" and the effects it has on student achievement. Mercer and Mercer (1985) in studying special education populations, advocated that for students to succeed in school, each needs daily instruction that is tailored to their educational needs. Therefore, their definition of individualized instruction does not always refer to a one-to-one learning situation as much as it refers to child-focused instruction. Englert (1983 and 1984), Laminack and Long (1985), and Rouk (1980) concurred that individualized instruction not only enhanced students' opportunities to succeed, but that it also increased student achievement.

Similarly, both Larrivee and Westling, Koorland and Rose, who in their studies looked at special education teachers' perceptions regarding teacher effectiveness, identified individualized instruction as one of the most

important evaluative practices of an effective teacher. Specifically, Westling, Koorland, and Rose (1981) found that 82 percent of the special education teachers perceived individualized instruction to affect the levels of achievement for students identified as handicapped (p. 360). Blair (1984), Brophy (1979), Mercer and Mercer (1985), Payne, Polloway, Smith, and Payne (1981), and Rouk (1980) advocated individualized instruction and also advocated small group instruction. Each agreed that, when appropriate, students should be grouped according to their abilities. Blair (1984) recognized that grouping students was effective, but emphasized that teachers must allow flexibility for students to proceed in and out of the groups as the students' educational needs changed.

Englert (1984), Larrivee (1982), and Westling, Koorland, and Rose (1981) examined teachers' perceptions regarding small group instruction with students identified as handicapped. Westling, Koorland, and Rose (1981) found, through the surveying of elementary special education teachers, that 88 percent of the teachers who responded to the survey related the use of small group instruction (p. 360). The Larrivee study supported the above findings, through her observation and surveying of elementary special education teachers, regarding effective teaching behaviors. Once again, small group instruction was identified as a practice of an effective teacher.

Heizmann and Starpoli (1975), Martin (1979), and Olivia

and Henson (1980) found that regular education teachers who fairly evaluate their students' performance affect the level of achievement. Balch (1981) conducted a study in which secondary students were asked to identify the behaviors they wanted their teachers to possess. Many of the responses given by the students dealt with the general fairness of the teacher as well as the fairness of his/her evaluation procedures. Similarly, Laminack and Long (1985) examined preservice teachers' perceptions of the effective teacher. The preservice group identified the techniques that characterized an effective teacher. This group identified fairness of the teacher as one of the characteristics of an effective teacher.

Behavior Management Strategies

Researchers, using elementary populations, examined the importance of behavior management in defining the effective teacher (Stow, 1979; Bauman, 1984). Brophy (1982), after scrutinizing regular elementary populations, stressed the importance of behavior management by stating, "Classroom management is essential to effective teaching." (p. 20). Guthrie (1983) has subsequently agreed, "Effective classrooms are distinguished by the success of the teacher to prevent behavior problems." (p. 606). There are many aspects to effective behavior management. Emmer, Evertson, and Anderson (1980), Good (1979), and Lehr (1982), using regular classroom populations, concluded that there are five primary management practices that when used appropriately

have been found to result in a decrease in inappropriate student behavior, and later affect student achievement: established standards for student behavior, monitored student behavior, reinforced appropriate behavior, provision of consequences for inappropriate behavior and modeled desired behavior. Brophy (1979) and Emmer, Evertson, and Anderson (1980) stressed the importance of establishing explicit standards for behavior, not only as a means of decreasing inappropriate student behavior, but as a means by which to increase student achievement.

Emmer, Evertson, and Anderson (1980) agreed with Englert's 1984 study in regard to the importance of setting standards for students' behavior. Englert advocated that the utilization of standards for behavior with children identified as exceptional facilitated the development of appropriate social and academic behaviors. Emmer, Evertson, and Anderson (1980) extended that notion and emphasized that standards for behavior are only effective if teachers enforce the standards.

Researchers have found, using elementary, secondary, and special education populations, that monitoring student behavior is an effective means by which to decrease inappropriate student behavior and increase student achievement (Brophy, 1982; Emmer, Evertson, and Anderson, 1980; Englert, 1984; Guthrie, 1983; Rouk, 1980; Squire, Huitt, and Segars, 1981; Suydan, 1983). Villeme and Hall (1985) conducted a study which identifies the differences

between higher and lower ability elementary teachers. Their results supported that higher ability teachers consistently monitored students' behavior as opposed to lower ability teachers who did not.

The majority of intervention efforts used with students identified as handicapped in the name of behavior change have been directed toward increasing appropriate desirable behaviors (Payne, Followay, Smith, and Payne, 1981, p. 90). The most sound and effective method found to increase appropriate student behavior has been the use of positive reinforcement (Emmer, Evertson, and Anderson, 1980; Ornstein and Levin, 1981). Lehr (1982) found, for positive reinforcement to have an effect on student achievement, the reinforcement had to be consistently given. Brophy (1979) and Stevens and Rosenshine (1980), in studying regular classroom teachers, advocated that positive reinforcement not only increased student achievement but also increased appropriate behavior.

As the provision of positive reinforcement has been found to increase appropriate student behavior, the provision of consequences has been supported as a means to decrease inappropriate behavior of students in elementary classrooms (Emmer, Evertson, and Anderson, 1980). The administration of consequences to students identified as handicapped have typically taken two forms: the withdrawal of positive reinforcement or the presentation of an aversive stimulus (Followay, Payne, Patton, and Payne 1981, p. 102).

In either case, research has shown that the provision of consequences for inappropriate student behavior results in a decrease in the behavior and ultimately an increase in student achievement (Brophy, 1982; Emmer, Evertson, and Anderson, 1980; Good, 1979; Guthrie, 1983; Ornstein and Levine, 1981; Squire, Huitt, and Segars, 1981). Each of the above studies used elementary and/or secondary populations.

Mercer and Mercer (1985) advocated that modeling has come to play a significant role in the acquisition and development of academic and social skills. However, before modeling can take place, teachers must define which behavior they deem appropriate, who will be the model for those behaviors and under what circumstances will modeling take place (Abrams, 1981). Blair (1984), Brophy (1982), Cooney (1984), Hosford (1980), Westling, Koorland, and Rose (1981), using elementary and special education populations, supported the notion of peer modeling in conjunction or addition to teacher modeling. The research has shown that teachers who establish explicit standards for students' behavior, monitor students' behavior, provide reinforcement for appropriate behavior, provide consequences for inappropriate behavior, and model desired behavior are effective practices in increasing student achievement and appropriate behavior.

Appendix A provides a summary of the aforementioned research. The population studied is indicated and the characteristics scrutinized are identified.

Method

The main focus of this study is to compare the views of special education teachers with the literature regarding the relative importance of various characteristics specific to teacher effectiveness. This study does not attempt to define teacher effectiveness, but ascertains a volunteer sample of special education teachers' opinions regarding teacher effectiveness characteristics and compares opinions regarding importance of various characteristics with those of researchers.

Subjects

The subjects were special education teachers (K-12) from three selected special education cooperatives in Illinois. The subjects were each sent a survey. A follow-up request was made but subjects had the option of whether or not to complete the survey. The sample is therefore a volunteer sample.

The cooperatives represent the northern (25 special education teachers), central (50 special education teachers), and southern (100 special education teachers) parts of the state. These were chosen in order to obtain a representative sample of Illinois teachers. The director of each cooperative was contacted, the purpose of the study was explained, and willingness to participate was elicited. Due to the time frame in which the surveys were mailed (annual reviews of IEP's), some directors were willing to participate as long as they could select the number of

surveys to be distributed within their districts, thus explaining the unequal number of sampled teachers.

The sample population was composed of 175 special educators. The 175 special education teachers self-coded themselves into three groups: K-6 teachers of students identified as learning disabled, educable mentally handicapped or behavior disorders; 7-12 teachers of students identified as learning disabled, educable mentally handicapped or behavior disorders; and K-12 special education teachers exclusive of subgroups 1 and 2. The coding of the teachers by level was consistent with the literature; researchers in the area of teacher effectiveness have tended to study populations according to level of instruction, elementary, secondary, and/or special education.

Procedure

A 25-item survey was developed based on an extensive review of literature covering the period from the passage of PL 94-142 (1975) to the present (1986) (see Appendix B). The organization of the review of literature was based on similar findings. Characteristics identified by researchers provided the means by which to develop the 25 items. Once the survey was developed, the survey and accompanying cover letter were mailed to the 175 special education teachers in early April (see Appendix C for cover letter). When the survey was received, teachers were asked to rank the 25 identified characteristics and practices within five

categories on a scale of 1 (least important) to 5 (most important). The five categories were: teacher characteristics, organizational, instructional, evaluative and behavioral practices. Although the literature has identified each of the 25 practices to be equally important, teachers were asked to rank the items. The forced ranking required teachers to rank order the items in reference to degree of importance within categories.

Once the survey was completed, teachers were asked to return the survey to a provided address within a five-day period. After the five-day period, a follow-up was initiated. The follow-up consisted of a mailing of a second copy of the cover letter and survey. Ninety-six of the 175 teachers completed the surveys. However, ten of those surveys were not valid due to incorrect completion of the survey. Therefore, the useable number of returned surveys was 86 of 175, or 49 percent.

Results

Descriptive Analysis

A "Teacher Effectiveness" survey was developed to ascertain special educators' (K-12) perceptions of the importance of the characteristics/behaviors the literature states effective teachers demonstrate. The 25-item survey was developed from an extensive review of teacher effectiveness literature from the passage of PL 94-142 to the present. In early April, 175 surveys were mailed to K-12 special education teachers in three cooperative located

in the northern, central and southern part of the state of Illinois. Of the 175 mailed surveys, 96 were completed and returned. The useable number of returned surveys was 86 of 175, or 49 percent. The whole group was coded into three subgroups: K-6 teachers of students identified as learning disabled, educable mentally handicapped, or behavior disordered; 7-12 teachers of students identified as learning disabled, educable mentally handicapped, or behavior disordered; and K-12 teachers exclusive of subgroups 1 and 2. Forty-six useable surveys were returned by teachers who fit the K-6 subgroup, with 23 7-12 teachers, and 16 K-12 teachers exclusive of groups 1 or 2. K-6 represented 53 percent of the total group, 7-12 made up 27 percent, and K-12, exclusive of subgroups 1 and 2, equalled 19 percent.

The sample for this study was a volunteer population. The literature on volunteer samples suggests that volunteer samples are usually more intelligent and have a higher educational background than randomly-selected samples. Furthermore, the literature also suggests that volunteer samples tend to provide the more positive or negative responses than randomly selected samples.

The volunteer sample was asked to rank 25 items on a scale of 1 (least important) to 5 (most important) within five categories. The data was analyzed specific to responses of the total group and subgroups were compared and contrasted.

Teacher Characteristics

Within the category of Teacher Characteristics, there were five items (1 through 5 on the survey): demonstrates enthusiasm, sensitivity to students' needs, demonstrates flexibility, provides encouragement, and high expectations for students' performance. Special educators ranked these five teacher characteristics on a scale from 5 (most important) to 1 (least important). Of the respondents, 34.9 percent thought "sensitivity to students' needs" (item 2) was most important; 24.4 percent believed "high expectations for students' performance" (item 5) to be most important; 15.1 percent believed "provides encouragement" (item 4) to be most important, and 14.0 percent cited "demonstrates enthusiasm" (item 1) as most important. Only 11.6 percent reported item 3, "demonstrates flexibility," to be the most important characteristic of an effective teacher.

Of the respondents, 27.9 percent reported that item 5, "high expectations for students' performance," would be the least important of the teacher characteristics; whereas, 26.7 percent believed the "demonstration of flexibility" (item 3) to be least important. Both items 1 and 2, "demonstrates enthusiasm" and "sensitivity to students' needs," were perceived by 18.6 percent of the respondents to be of least importance. Only 8.1 percent cited "provides encouragement" (item 4) to be the least important characteristic of an effective teacher. The average means

for the teacher characteristics items were: sensitivity to students' needs ($\bar{X} = 3.453$), provides encouragement ($\bar{X} = 3.337$), high expectations for students' performance ($\bar{X} = 2.919$), demonstrates flexibility ($\bar{X} = 2.674$), and demonstrates enthusiasm ($\bar{X} = 2.616$).

Items 6 through 10 comprise the category of Organizational Practices. These included: competent in subject areas taught, develops and communicates lesson objectives, information is systematically presented, instruction clear and focused, and instruction is paced. Item 9, "instruction is clear and focused," was cited by 38.4 percent as most important; 34.9 percent reported "competency in subject areas" (item 6) was most important; 10.5 percent believed item 10, "instruction is paced," was of most importance. While 9.3 percent felt that "information is systematically presented" (item 8) was most important, only 8.1 percent believed that item 7, "develops and communicates lesson objectives," was the most important organizational practice of an effective teacher.

"Instruction is paced," (item 10) was perceived by 34.9 percent of the respondents to be the least important organizational practice of an effective teacher; 24.4 percent felt that item 6, "develops and communicates lesson objectives," was least important; and 19.8 percent cited "competency in subject areas" (item 5) as least important. "Information is systematically presented," (item 8), was felt by 15.1 percent to be least important; and 5.8 percent

felt that item 9, "instruction is clear and focused," was the least important organizational practice of an effective teacher. The average means for the organizational practice items were: instruction is clear and focused ($\bar{X} = 3.802$), competent in subject areas ($\bar{X} = 3.221$), information is systematically presented ($\bar{X} = 2.767$), develops and communicates lesson objectives ($\bar{X} = 2.733$), and instruction is paced ($\bar{X} = 2.500$).

Items 11 through 15 comprise the category of Instructional Practices. These included: uses a variety of methods and materials, involves students in active learning, instructional time is devoted to task-related activities, provides practice and reinforcement activities, and communicates with teacher/administrators. Special educators ranked these five instructional practices on a scale from 5 (most important) to 1 (least important). Of the teachers surveyed, 46.5 percent identified item 12, "involves students in active learning," to be most important; 24.4 percent cited "using a variety of methods and materials" (item 11) as most important; 10.5 percent believed item 15, "communicates with teachers/administrators," to be most important; while 9.3 percent reported that both items 13 and 14, "instructional time is devoted to task-related activities" and "provides practice and reinforcement activities" as the most important instructional practice of an effective teacher.

Item 15, "communicates with teacher/administrators,"

was cited by 67.4 percent of the teachers as the least important instructional practice; 22.1 percent believed the "using of a variety of methods and materials" (item 11) to be least important; 9.3 percent cited both items 12 and 13, "involves students in active learning" and "instructional time is devoted to task-related activities" as most important, while a smaller percentage of teachers (2.3 percent) reported item 14, "provides practice and reinforcement activities," to be the least important instructional practice of an effective teacher. The average means for the instructional practice items were: involves students in active learning ($\bar{X} = 3.977$), uses a variety of methods and materials ($\bar{X} = 3.267$), provides practice and reinforcement activities ($\bar{X} = 3.093$), instructional time is devoted to task-related activities ($\bar{X} = 2.895$), and communicates with teachers/ administrators ($\bar{X} = 1.779$).

Within the category of Evaluative Practices, there were five items (16 through 20 on the survey): closely monitors students' progress, provides immediate feedback, individualizes instruction, groups students according to abilities, and fairly evaluates students' performance. "Individualizes instruction," item 18, was cited by 36.0 percent as most important; 19.8 percent believed "providing immediate feedback" (item 17) to be most important; 16.3 percent identified "grouping students according to abilities" (item 19) as most important, while 15.1 percent viewed item 16, "closely monitors students' progress," as

most important; 12.8 percent perceived the "fair evaluation of students' performance" (item 20) as the most important evaluative practice demonstrated by an effective teacher.

Both items 19 and 20, "groups students according to abilities" and "fairly evaluates students' performance," were believed to be the least important evaluative practices demonstrated by an effective teacher by 31.4 percent of the respondents; 14.0 percent identified item 16, "closely monitors students' progress," as least important; and 11.6 percent ranked both items 17 and 18, "provides immediate feedback" and "individualizes instruction," to be the least important evaluative practices of an effective teacher. The average means specific to evaluative practices were: individualizes instruction ($\bar{X} = 3.419$), provides immediate feedback ($\bar{X} = 3.360$), closely monitors students' progress ($\bar{X} = 2.977$), groups students according to abilities ($\bar{X} = 2.709$), and fairly evaluates students' performance ($\bar{X} = 2.535$).

Within the final category, Behavior Management, were five items (21 through 25 on the survey): establishes explicit standards for students' behavior, monitors students' behavior, provides reinforcement for appropriate behavior, provides consequences for inappropriate behavior, and models desired behavior. Over half of the whole group (54.7 percent) of the teachers ranked item 21, "establishes explicit standards for students' behavior," as most important; 19.8 percent believed "modeling desired behavior"

(item 25) to be most important; 18.6 percent reported item 23, "provides reinforcement for appropriate behavior," as most important, 4.7 percent cited "providing consequences for inappropriate behavior" (item 24) as most important; while only 2.3 percent of the whole group ranked item 22, "monitors students' behavior," to be the most important behavior management practice of effective teachers.

Item 21, "monitors students' behavior," was ranked as the least important behavior management item by 32.6 percent of the respondents; 26.7 percent reported "providing consequences for inappropriate behavior" (item 24) as least important; 25.6 percent believed item 25, "models desired behavior," to be least important; 12.8 percent ranked item 20, "establishes explicit standards for students' behavior," to be least important; whereas only 2.3 percent of the group ranked item 23, "provides reinforcement for appropriate behavior," as the least important behavior management practice demonstrated by an effective teacher. The average means for behavior management were: establishes explicit standards for students' behavior ($\bar{X} = 3.872$), provides reinforcement for appropriate behavior ($\bar{X} = 3.500$), models desired behavior ($\bar{X} = 2.907$), provides consequences for inappropriate behavior ($\bar{X} = 2.442$), and monitors students' behavior ($\bar{X} = 2.279$).

Table 1 provides a listing of the items and average mean rankings of the whole group.

Insert Table 1

There were three designated subgroups: subgroup 1 (K-6 special education teachers of students identified as learning disabled, educable mentally handicapped, or behavior disordered), subgroup 2 (7-12 special education teachers of students identified as learning disabled, educable mentally handicapped, or behavior disordered), and subgroup 3 (K-12 special education teachers who do not work with students in the above subgroups, but work with students who are handicapped). Table 2 provides a listing of the items on the survey and the mean average rankings for each item for each of the subgroups.

Insert Table 2

As Table 2 indicates, all three subgroups appeared to generally agree on all of the items except for item 9, "instruction is clear and focused," and item 22, "monitors students' behavior." On item 9, "instruction is clear and focused," subgroup 1 (K-6 special education teachers) had a mean average of 3.935; subgroup 2 (7-12 special education teachers) had a mean of 4.081; and subgroup 3 (K-12 other) had a mean of 2.938. Subgroup 2, (7-12 special education teachers) ranked item 9 higher than either subgroup 1 (K-6 special education teachers) or subgroup 3 (K-12 other). On item 22, "monitors students' behavior," subgroup 1 (K-6 special education teachers) had a mean average of 2.261; subgroup 2 (7-12 special education teachers) had a mean of 1.870; and subgroup 3 (K-12 other) had a mean of 2.938. Subgroup 3 (K-12 other) ranked item 22 higher than either

subgroup 1 (K-6 special education teachers) or subgroup 2 (7-12 special education teachers).

Statistical Analysis

The data was analyzed to ascertain whether there were any significant differences between rankings of the subgroups: special education teachers (K-6), special education teachers (7-12), and special education teachers (K-12 other). An F-probability test was used to identify any significant differences in the mean averages of the three subgroups. A Scheffe analysis was used to ascertain where the differences were specific to the subgroups. Any existing differences between the groups were determined to be significant at the .05 level.

Of the 25 ranked items, two were significant at the .05 level. These were item 9, "instruction is clear and focused," and item 22, "monitors students' behavior." In regard to item 9, "instruction is clear and focused," significant differences were found between subgroup 2 (7-12 grade special education teachers) and subgroup 3 (K-12 other). Special education teachers (7-12), subgroup 2, had a mean average of 4.081, whereas subgroup 3 (K-12 other) had a mean average of 2.938 and subgroup 1 (K-6 special education teachers) had a mean average of 3.935. Of the K-6 special education teachers ($n = 46$) who responded to item 9, "instruction is clear and focused," 43.5 percent believed that item 9 was most important; while 4.3 percent of the respondents ranked item 9 least important. Of the 23

teachers in subgroup 2 (7-12 grade special education teachers), 47.8 percent ranked item 9 least important. Of the 16 special education teachers in subgroup 3, 6.3 percent ranked item 9 most important; whereas 12.5 percent ranked item 9 least important.

Table 3 provides the mean averages of the three subgroups and the F-probability value for item 9, which was found to be significant at the .0064 level.

Insert Table 3

In regard to item 22, "monitors students' behavior," significant differences were once again found specific to subgroup 2 (7-12 grade special education teachers) and subgroup 3 (K-12 other). The average mean rankings reported for item 22, "monitors students' behavior," were: subgroup 1 (K-6 grade special education teachers) reported ($\bar{X} = 2.261$); subgroup 2 (7-12 grade special education teachers), ($\bar{X} = 1.870$); and subgroup 3 (K-12 other), ($\bar{X} = 2.938$). Of the 46 K-6 grade special education teachers, 4.3 percent believed item 22, "monitors students' behavior," most important, while 34.8 percent ranked item 22 least important. Of the 23 respondents in subgroup 2 (7-12 grade special education teachers), none ranked item 22 as most important, while the majority (43.5 percent) ranked item 22 as least important. Of the 16 special education teachers in subgroup 3 (K-12 special education teachers exclusive of subgroups 1 and 2), none ranked item 22 as most important. Table 4 provides the mean averages of the three subgroups and the F-probability

value for item 22, which was found to be significant at the .0203 level.

Insert Table 4

Discussion

Special educators ranked each identified characteristic/practice as to its relative importance specific to effective teaching when the students being taught are children with handicaps. The results of the study indicated that given the three subgroups, subgroup 1 (K-6 grade special education teachers of students identified as LD, EMH, and BD), subgroup 2 (7-12 grade special education teachers of students identified as LD, EMH, and BD), and subgroup 3 (K-12 other), significant differences exist for only 2 out of 25 characteristics/practices. The first of these differences is "instruction is clear and focused," in which 7-12 grade special education teachers (LD, EMH, and BD) and teachers of K-12 other did not agree. Those teachers (7-12) ranked "instruction is clear and focused" significantly higher than those teachers in K-12 other classrooms.

The significant difference in the ranking of "instruction is clear and focused" by the 7-12 grade special education teachers (LD, EMH, and BD) and the K-12 other teachers may relate to the subject matter being taught. Those teachers in subgroup 2 (7-12 teachers) focus much of their instruction on complex academic tasks, whereas subgroup 3 (K-12 other) teachers' focus of instruction may

be toward less complex and/or academic tasks. The other characteristic/practice on which the groups did not concur was "monitors students' behavior." Those teachers (7-12) ranked this practice very low whereas K-12 other teachers felt it was more important. The significant difference in the ranking of "monitors students' behavior" by the 7-12 grade special education teachers and the K-12 other teachers may relate to the composition of the subgroups and the students whom they teach.

Subgroup 2 (7-12 grade special education teachers) consists of those teachers of students identified as LD, EMH, and BD, subgroup 3 (K-12 other) encompasses a wider range of teachers and handicapping conditions. The significant difference in rankings of these items by 7-12 grade special education teachers and K-12 other teachers may reflect not only the wide range of students being taught but may reflect also the severity of the handicapping condition. Teachers comprising subgroup 3 (K-12 other) who teach students with wider ranges and potentially more severe handicapping conditions who cannot work independently may perceive "monitoring students' behavior" to be more important than 7-12 grade special education teachers whose students can work independently.

The findings indicate that special educators' perceptions are more alike than different. The primary focus of much of the literature is on elementary populations, yet no significant differences were found

between K-6 and 7-12 special education teachers. The lack of significant differences may indicate researchers' persistent analysis of teacher effectiveness by grade levels is not necessary.

This survey could be used to obtain and compare regular, special educators' and administrators' perceptions of effective teaching characteristics/practices in order to further develop the quality and processes of teacher evaluation. The results of this survey can also be used in university settings to enhance the quality of teacher education programs.

APPENDIX A

Survey Statements and References
(Population: Ele, Secd, Spe, or both)1. Demonstrates enthusiasm

Sass-Lehrer & Wolk, 1984 (SPE populations)
Rosenshine, 1983 (ELE populations)
Emmer, Evertson, & Anderson, 1980 (ELE)
Johnson, 1980 (ELE and Secd)

2. Sensitivity to students' needs

Laminack & Long, 1985 (ELE)
Baumann, 1984 (ELE)
Rosenshine, 1983 (ELE populations)
Larrivee, 1982 (SPE populations)
Balch, 1981 (Secd populations)
Hansen, 1981 (Secd populations)
Emmer, Evertson, & Anderson, 1980 (ELE)
Johnson, 1980 (Secd populations)
Olivia & Henson, 1980 (ELE and Secd)
Heitzmann & Starpoli, 1975 (ELE)

3. Demonstrates flexibility

Villeme & Hall, 1984-85 (ELE)
Sass-Lehrer & Wolk, 1984 (SPE)
Issler, 1983 (ELE)
Cooney, 1981 (ELE)
Olivia & Henson, 1980 (ELE and Secd)
Heitzmann & Starpoli, 1975 (ELE)

4. Provides encouragement

Ayers, 1983 (both)
Suydan, 1983 (ELE)
Larrivee, 1982 (SPE)
Balch, 1981 (Secd)
Ornstein & Levine, 1981 (ELE and Secd)
Taylor, 1981 (ELE)
Brophy, 1979 (ELE)
Stow, 1979 (ELE)
Snyder, 1978 (ELE)

5. High expectations for student performance

Wolfe & McCown, 1985 (ELE)
Glazzard, 1984 (SPE)
Aloia & Aloia, 1982 (SPE)
Brophy, 1982 (ELE)
Feldman & Theiss, 1982

5. High expectations for student performance (cont.)

Larrivee, 1982 (SPE)
Brophy, 1979 (ELE)

6. Competent in subject area(s)

Pellicer, 1984 (ELE and Secd)
Englert, 1983 (SPE)
Johnson, 1980 (Secd)

7. Develops and communicates lesson objectives

Englert, 1984 (SPE)
Guzzetti & Marzano, 1984 (ELE)
Koslofsky, 1984 (ELE and Secd)
Sass-Lehrer & Wolk, 1984 (SPE)
Guthrie, 1982 (ELE)
Abrams, 1981 (ELE)
Emmer, Evertson, & Anderson, 1980 (ELE)
Brophy, 1979 (ELE)

8. Information systematically presented

Englert, 1984 (SPE)
Guthrie, 1983 (ELE)
Guthrie, 1982 (ELE)
Hansen, 1981 (Secd)
Johnson, 1980 (Secd)

9. Instruction is clear and focused

Guthrie, 1982 (ELE)
Hansen, 1981 (Secd)
Squire, Huitt, & Segar, 1981 (ELE)
Emmer, Evertson, & Anderson, 1980 (ELE)
Johnson, 1980 (Secd)
Olivia & Henson, 1980 (ELE and Secd)

10. Instruction is paced

Blair, 1984 (ELE)
Englert, 1984 (SPE)
Englert, 1983 (SPE)
Rosenshine, 1983 (ELE)
Taylor, 1981 (ELE)
Brophy, 1979 (ELE)

11. Uses a variety of methods and materials

Ayers, 1983 (Both)
Guthrie, 1983 (ELE)
Westing, Koorland, & Rose, 1981 (SPE)
Emmer, Evertson, & Anderson, 1980 (ELE)

11. Uses a variety of methods and materials (cont.)

Rouk, 1980 (ELE and Secd)
Snyder, 1978 (ELE)

12. Involves students in active learning

Laminack & Long, 1985 (Post secd)
Ornstein, 1985 (ELE)
Pellicer, 1984 (ELE and Secd)
Englert, 1983 (SPE)
Issler, 1983 (ELE)
Rosenshine, 1983 (ELE)
Larrivee, 1982 (SPE)
Lehr, 1982 (ELE)
Taylor, 1981 (ELE)
Good, 1979 (ELE)
Stow, 1979 (ELE)
Snyder, 1978 (ELE)

13. Instructional time devoted to task-related activities

Baumann, 1984 (ELE)
Blair, 1984 (ELE)
Englert, 1984 (SPE)
Guzzetti & Marzano, 1984 (ELE)
Englert, 1983 (SPE)
Brandt, 1982 (ELE and Secd)
Larrivee, 1982 (SPE)
Abrams, 1981 (ELE)
Ornstein & Levine, 1981 (ELE and Secd)
Taylor, 1981 (ELE)
Emmer, Evertson, & Anderson, 1980 (ELE)
Rouk, 1980 (ELE and Secd)
Stow, 1979 (ELE)
Medley, 1977 (Both)

14. Provides practice and reinforcement activities

Doyle, 1985 (ELE)
Englert, 1984 (SPE)
Pellicer, 1984 (ELE and Secd)
Englert, 1983 (SPE)
Lehr, 1982 (ELE)
Abrams, 1981 (ELE)
Brophy, 1979 (ELE)

15. Communicates with teachers/administrators

Sass-Lehrer & Wolk, 1984 (SPE)
Cooney, 1981 (ELE)
Hansen, 1981 (Secd)
Squire, Huitt, & Segars, 1981 (ELE)
Westling, Koorland, & Rose, 1981 (SPE)

15. Communicates with teachers/administrators (cont.)

Johnson, 1980 (Secd)
Olivia & Henson, 1980 (ELE and Secd)

16. Closely monitors students' progress

Baumann, 1984 (ELE)
Englert, 1984 (SPE)
Pellicer, 1984 (ELE and Secd)
Rippey, 1983 (ELE)
Guthrie, 1982 (ELE)
Abrams, 1981 (ELE)
Squire, Huitt, & Segars, 1981 (ELE)

17. Provides immediate feedback

Baumann, 1984 (ELE)
Pellicer, 1984 (ELE and Secd)
Englert, 1983 (SPE)
Issler, 1983 (ELE)
Rosenshine, 1983 (ELE)
Guthrie, 1982 (ELE)
Larrivee, 1982 (SPE)
Brophy, 1979 (ELE)

18. Individualizes instruction

Laminack & Long, 1985 (Post secd)
Mercer & Mercer, 1985 (SPE)
Englert, 1984 (SPE)
Englert, 1983 (SPE)
Larrivee, 1982 (SPE)
Payne, Polloway, Smith, & Payne, 1981 (SPE)
Rouk, 1980 (ELE and Secd)

19. Groups students according to abilities

Mercer & Mercer, 1985 (SPE)
Blair, 1984 (ELE)
Englert, 1984 (SPE)
Payne, Polloway, Smith, & Payne, 1981 (SPE)
Rouke, 1980 (ELE and Secd)
Brophy, 1979 (ELE)

20. Fairly evaluates students' performance

Laminack & Long, 1985 (Post secd)
Balch, 1981 (Secd)
Olivia & Henson, 1980 (ELE and Secd)
Martin, 1979 (ELE)
Heitzmann & Starpoli, 1975 (ELE)

21. Establishes explicit standards for students' behavior

Doyle, 1985 (ELE)
Wolfe & McCown, 1985 (ELE)
Blair, 1984 (ELE)
Englert, 1984 (SPE)
Koslofsky, 1984 (ELE and Secd)
Lehr, 1982 (ELE)
Squire, Huitt, & Segars, 1981 (ELE)
Taylor, 1981 (ELE)
Emmer, Evertson, & Anderson, 1980 (ELE)
Rouk, 1980 (ELE and Secd)
Brophy, 1979 (ELE)

22. Monitors students' behavior

Villeme & Hall, 1985 (ELE)
Englert, 1984 (SPE)
Guthrie, 1983 (ELE)
Suydan, 1983 (ELE)
Brophy, 1982 (ELE)
Squire, Huitt, & Segars, 1981 (ELE)
Emmer, Evertson, & Anderson, 1980 (ELE)
Rouk, 1980 (ELE and Secd)

23. Provides reinforcement for appropriate behavior

Payne, Polloway, Smith, & Payne, 1981 (SPE)
Lehr, 1982 (ELE)
Ornstein & Levine, 1981 (ELE and Secd)
Emmer, Evertson, & Anderson, 1980 (ELE)
Stevens & Rosenshine, 1980 (ELE)
Brophy, 1979 (ELE)

24. Provides consequences for inappropriate behavior

Polloway, Payne, Patton, & Payne, 1985 (SPE)
Guthrie, 1983 (ELE)
Brophy, 1982 (ELE)
Ornstein & Levine, 1981 (ELE and Secd)
Squire, Huitt, & Segars, 1981 (ELE)
Emmer, Evertson, & Anderson, 1980 (ELE)
Brophy, 1979 (ELE)

25. Models desired behavior

Mercer & Mercer, 1985 (SPE)
Blair, 1984 (ELE)
Cooney, 1984 (ELE)
Abrams, 1981 (ELE)
Westling, Koorland, & Rose, 1981 (SPE)
Brophy, 1979 (ELE)

DO NOT WRITE IN THIS SPACE

SURVEY - QUESTIONNAIRE FORM



TESTING CENTER

EASTERN ILLINOIS UNIVERSITY

CHARLESTON, ILLINOIS 61920

T-2

BEHAVIOR MANAGEMENT:

- a. Establishes explicit standards for students' behavior.
- b. Monitors students' behavior.
- c. Provides reinforcement for appropriate behavior.
- d. Provides consequences for inappropriate behavior.
- e. Models desired behavior.

1 2 3 4 5

1 2 3 4 5

1 2 3 4 5

1 2 3 4 5

1 3 3 1 5

Table 1

Average Mean Rankings of Whole Group

<u>Item number</u>	<u>Overall ranking</u>	\bar{x}
<u>Teacher characteristics</u>		
1. Demonstrates enthusiasm	1	2.616
2. Sensitivity to students' needs	5	3.453
3. Demonstrates flexibility	2	2.674
4. Provides encouragement	4	3.337
5. High expectations for student performance	3	2.919
<u>Organizational practices</u>		
6. Competent in subject area(s)	4	3.221
7. Develops and communicates lesson objectives	2	2.733
8. Information is systematically presented	3	2.767
9. Instruction is clear and focused	5	3.802
10. Instruction is paced	1	2.500
<u>Instructional practices</u>		
11. Uses a variety of methods and materials	4	3.267
12. Involves students in active learning	5	3.977
13. Instructional time is devoted to task-related activities	2	2.895
14. Provides practice and reinforcement activities	3	3.093
15. Communicates with teacher/s administrators	1	1.779
<u>Evaluative practices</u>		
16. Closely monitors students' progress	3	2.977
17. Provides immediate feedback	4	3.360
18. Individualizes instruction	5	3.419
19. Groups students according to abilities	2	2.709
20. Fairly evaluates students' performance	1	2.535

Table 1 (continued)

Average Mean Rankings of Whole Group

<u>Item number</u>	<u>Overall ranking</u>	\bar{x}
<u>Behavioral practices</u>		
21. Establishes explicit standards for students' behavior	5	3.872
22. Monitors students' behavior	1	2.279
23. Provides reinforcement for appropriate behavior	4	3.500
24. Provides consequences for inappropriate behavior	2	2.442
25. Models desired behavior	3	2.907

Table 2

Mean Averages by Subgroups

<u>Item number</u>	<u>Spe. Ed. K-6 (n=46)</u>	<u>Spe. Ed. 7-12 (n=23)</u>	<u>Spe. Ed. K-12 (n=16)</u>
<u>CHARACTERISTICS</u>			
1	2.522	3.130	2.250
2	3.500	3.174	3.625
3	2.783	2.348	2.875
4	3.391	3.304	3.188
5	2.804	3.043	3.063
<u>ORGANIZATIONAL PRACTICES</u>			
6	3.283	2.957	3.438
7	2.696	2.696	2.813
8	2.609	2.870	3.125
9	3.935	4.081	2.938
10	2.478	2.391	2.813
<u>INSTRUCTIONAL PRACTICES</u>			
11	3.043	3.739	3.188
12	3.957	3.870	4.125
13	3.043	2.739	2.688
14	3.109	3.348	2.750
15	1.848	1.348	2.250
<u>EVALUATIONAL PRACTICES</u>			
16	2.870	3.043	3.250
17	3.413	3.522	2.938
18	3.587	3.130	3.250
19	2.717	2.696	2.688
20	2.413	2.609	2.875
<u>BEHAVIOR MANAGEMENT</u>			
21	3.826	4.043	3.813
22	2.261	1.870	2.938
23	3.609	3.478	3.188
24	2.500	2.739	1.938
25	2.804	2.870	3.125

Table 3

Survey Item with Significant Difference

Item Number 9. Instruction is Clear and Focused

Rankings

	Most Important	Next Important	Most Important	Third Important	Most Important	Next to Least Important	Least Important	\bar{x}
Spe.								
Ed.	43.5%		23.9%		19.6%		8.7%	4.3% 3.935
K-6	20		11		9		4	2
n=46								
Spe.								
Ed.	47.8%		26.1%		17.4%		4.3%	4.3% 4.087
7-12	11		6		4		1	1
n=23								
Spe.								
Ed.	6.3%		31.3%		25.0%		25.0%	12.5% 2.938
K-12	1		5		4		4	2
(other)								
n=16								

F-probability = .0064

Table 4

Survey Item with Significant Difference

Item Number 22. Monitors Students' Behavior

Rankings

	Most Important	Next Most Important	Third Most Important	Most Important	Next to Least Important	Least Important	\bar{x}
Spe.							
Ed.	4.3%	19.6%		8.7%	32.6%	34.8%	2.261
K-6	2	9		4	16	16	
n=46							
Spe.							
Ed.		8.7%		13.0%	34.8%	43.5%	1.870
7-12	0	2		3	8	10	
n=23							
Spe.							
Ed.		37.5%		31.3%	18.8%	12.5%	2.938
K-12	0	6		5	3	2	
(other)							
n=16							

F-probability = .0203

References

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